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# Four-H Organizational Leaders--The Association Between Task Performance and Support Received (Concern, Volunteer Management).

Donald Robinson Hammatt

*Louisiana State University and Agricultural & Mechanical College*

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PERFORMANCE AND SUPPORT RECEIVED

*The Louisiana State University and Agricultural and Mechanical Col.*

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FOUR-H ORGANIZATIONAL LEADERS--  
THE ASSOCIATION BETWEEN  
TASK PERFORMANCE AND SUPPORT RECEIVED

A Dissertation

Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the  
Louisiana State University and  
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in

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by

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## ABSTRACT

The objective of the study was to discover if there were relationships between task performance of the 4-H organizational leader and concern shown by the Extension agent as well as other selected independent variables. More specifically, an attempt was made to determine if one area of concern was more important than another. The research consisted of a survey instrument sent to a sample of 312 of the 1,560 4-H organizational leaders throughout the state of Louisiana; seventy-seven percent of the schedules were returned. Eight hypotheses were tested and the following statistical tests were used to analyze the data: correlation, Chi-square, analysis of variance, and regression analysis.

There was a positive statistical correlation between concern shown by the Extension agent as perceived by the leader and the effectiveness score of the leader. The four actions of Extension agents that had the greatest statistical influence on the leader effectiveness scores were coaching - to help them understand what to do, providing opportunities for growth and development, showing trust in them, and listening to what they had to say.

Other findings were as follows: There was a positive correlation between the number of contacts and the

effectiveness scores of leaders. Task accomplishment by leaders was positively associated with being asked to perform the task by Extension agents. There was not a significant difference in the effectiveness scores of leaders who had children in 4-H and those who did not. Tenure of Extension agents on the job was not associated with the leaders' perception of agents showing concern for them. The effectiveness scores of leaders were not associated with whether they were appointed by the principal, recruited by the Extension agent, volunteered or recruited by another leader. The effectiveness scores of the 4-H leaders were associated with the leader's self-perception of competency as a leader.

The findings of the study strongly indicate that 4-H organizational leaders will respond to Extension agents showing greater concern and support by performing more of the tasks necessary for boys and girls to get maximum benefit from the 4-H program.

## CHAPTER 1

### INTRODUCTION

The 4-H program is a youth development program conducted by Louisiana Cooperative Extension Service Agents and volunteer leaders. The program utilizes agriculture, home economics, and related projects to do this. Most of the 4-H clubs are organized in the schools and meet during school hours. Extension agents attend all scheduled 4-H meetings along with organizational leaders. Many of the leaders are teachers who are assigned by their principal to work with the 4-H group. There is a broad range of leader involvement varying from assigned leaders who do not come to meetings to committed leaders who spend many hours each month helping their 4-H groups to learn and function effectively.

In addition to the difference in leader involvement there is also a difference among 4-H agents concerning role perception. Research by Richard (1983) indicates that Extension agents with less than five years experience believed that they were responsible for accomplishing most of the tasks related to the 4-H program. After five years experience the agents became much more willing to delegate tasks to volunteer leaders. This situation tends to cause the "new" agent to assume responsibility for tasks that

the experienced leader may be very capable of performing. This usually creates frustration for the experienced leader and may cause him to quit or to become laissez-faire in his attitude.

The purpose of this study was to determine the relationship between the degree of concern shown to organizational leaders by 4-H agents and the degree that volunteer leaders perform specific tasks. More specifically an attempt was made to determine which area of concern has the greatest influence on task performance.

The importance of the volunteer in the 4-H program cannot be overemphasized. The 4-H program depends on volunteers in order to reach the young people involved. To emphasize the importance of volunteers to Extension the following quote from "Extension in the 80's" (1983:19) is presented:

**The Private Sector Partnerships**

Fully as important to Extension as its legal partnerships are the less formal relationships it has with the private sector. Of utmost importance to Extension are 1) its volunteers and 2) its private funding sources. Some 1.5 million adult volunteers put in an average of more than 100 hours per year conducting Extension programs under the guidance of Extension professionals. Their time is equivalent to over 90,000 man-years--some five times that of the professional staff time paid from tax funds.

Volunteer roles are many: Some people serve as leaders for 4-H clubs and homemaker groups; others serve on advisory bodies, provide telephone answering services, prepare mailings, or set up test demonstration plots. In addition to the time involved, many of these individuals bear the costs of travel, food, materials, and

telephone and incidental costs. This volunteer system deserves encouragement from all three legal partners, as it is basic to the success of Cooperative Extension in America. We encourage greater resource allocation for leader training and development in all Extension program areas.

Information presented by Boyce (1982) also emphasizes the value of volunteers to Cooperative Extension. The one and one-half million Extension volunteers were divided as follows among Extension programs: 570,000 in 4-H, 600,000 in home economics, and 400,000 in agriculture, natural resources, and community and rural development.

In one year's time 4-H volunteers gave approximately 220 hours each, homemakers contributed 56 hours each and the others gave 60 hours each. This was a total of 183 million hours; if that time was valued at \$8.00 per hour, these volunteers gave one and one-half billion dollars annually to Extension programs. This was an extremely large financial contribution; however, money could not purchase the commitment and motivation these volunteers brought to Extension.

Boyce also states that there will be an increase in demand for volunteers during the eighties. As volunteers get more involved they will demand and get more say in deciding program direction of voluntary and political groups.

A more recent report, "Implications of Volunteerism in Extension" (1985), indicates that the value of volunteers to Extension programs was more than four and one-

half billion dollars annually. The greatest amount of this volunteer time comes from activities in which volunteers shared Extension information with other people.

A third point that emphasizes the importance of volunteerism is that it is one of eight national initiatives that have been identified as a priority needing attention throughout the Extension system.

In more recent years as more women began full time employment, the idea surfaced that volunteerism was declining. A study done by the Gallup Organization (1981) indicated that this idea was incorrect. The Gallup research indicated that employment status relates positively to volunteerism. The highest level was for part-time employed (65 percent volunteering) as compared with full time employed (55 percent volunteering) and unemployed (45 percent volunteering). The poll also indicated that 47 percent of the adult population were engaged as volunteers in a structured way. Volunteerism is alive and well and growing. As our national debt continues to increase, the President of our country is promoting volunteerism as a way to reduce government spending and the way to solve other problems. President Reagan proclaimed a "National Year of Voluntarism" beginning May 1, 1983, until April 30, 1984, emphasizing that volunteers are not only important to Cooperative Extension and 4-H but also to our American way of life.

A second look at 4-H volunteers in Louisiana is needed. As mentioned in the opening statements of this paper, there is a large variation in tasks performed by 4-H organizational leaders. The Narrative Accomplishment Report Summary (1983) indicated that 314 clubs in the state had leaders who were assigned but did not function, 934 clubs had active leaders carrying out a few specific tasks and another 469 clubs had organizational leaders who not only carried out specific tasks themselves but also recruited other volunteers to assist them with their 4-H club. There is a need to increase the number of tasks accomplished by all of these leaders. Obviously the need is greatest in the group that does not function at all.

#### The Problem

The problem that is being addressed is lack of task performance by 4-H leaders. As a consequence, this study is being conducted to determine if there is a relationship between concern shown by Extension agents and task performance by volunteer leaders. Even more specifically this study will attempt to determine if one area of concern is more important than another. At this time, Extension agents doing 4-H work are expected to attend nearly all of the 4-H activities that take place in their county. As a result of their attending 15 to 25 4-H meetings a month, as well as any other contest or activity planned in their county, many agents feel a shortage of



time. Therefore, if the study can determine which area of concern is most important, it will be very helpful to agents in using the time available more efficiently.

## CHAPTER II

### THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The literature review will be organized as follows: section one will discuss motivation theories, section two will discuss leadership theories, section three will cover volunteerism, and section four will provide research reports related to the problem.

#### Motivation Theories

Content theories presented here focus on the needs and incentives that cause behavior. The three content theories that will be explained are: Maslow's needs hierarchy, McClelland's achievement, affiliation and power needs, and Herzberg's two factor theory. They will be presented in the order listed.

#### Hierarchy-of-Needs Theory

One of the widely studied theories of motivation is Maslow's (1970) needs hierarchy theory. This theory states that people are motivated by different needs arranged in a hierarchy; that is, people are motivated by low level needs until those needs are met, they are then motivated by higher level needs. Maslow (1970) has arranged the needs in the following order:

1. Physiological: This is the need for food, drink, shelter and relief from pain.

2. Safety and security: This is the need for freedom from threat or threatening events or surroundings.
3. Belongingness, social, and love: This is the need to have friends, affiliation, interaction, and love.
4. Esteem: This is the need for self-esteem and for esteem from others.
5. Self-actualization: This is the need to fulfill oneself by maximizing one's skills and abilities.

These are followed by the cognitive needs to know and understand and the aesthetic needs to perceive beauty, elegance, and splendor.

An important part in this theory is that when a need is met it no longer serves as a motivator.

In order for Extension agents to make use of Maslow's theory they would need to know as much as possible about their volunteer leaders in order to use the most effective motivator. Maslow further explains that people will not make changes or participate in a new activity if that activity is perceived to be threatening or if they are uncertain about the benefits. When we are comfortable with what we are doing and unsure of new activities, we are not likely to try them. Of the two motivators, the desire for growth and the need for safety, Maslow states that the need for safety is always strongest.

### Theory of Achievement, Affiliation, and Power Needs

McClelland's (1962) theory of achievement, affiliation, and power needs is based on the idea that needs are learned or acquired from our culture. He identified characteristics of achievers through research. They are (1) the desire for responsibility for finding solutions to problems, (2) the tendency to set moderate achievement goals and to accept calculated risks, and (3) the desire for feedback on performance. McClelland suggests that when these needs are strong in a person, the person is motivated to act in such a way that leads to satisfaction of the need. For people with a high need for affiliation, for example, the quality of interpersonal relationships is more important than goal achievement. People with a high need for power, on the other hand, will try to maximize opportunities for exercising power and authority. This need may have either a positive or negative orientation according to McClelland. He pointed out the negative aspect if the person exercising power emphasizes dominance and submission and the positive side if it reflects persuasive and inspirational behavior. McClelland's main theme is that these needs are learned through interaction with one's environment. If they are mastered then learning can continue. If high achievement behavior is rewarded, the frequency of this behavior will increase. The fact that a person has a high need in one area does not mean that he has low needs in others. Also,

it should be pointed out that the optimal mix of needs varies with the task to be accomplished.

### Motivation-Hygiene Theory

Herzberg's (1959) motivation-hygiene theory came about as a result of an attempt to learn what people want from their jobs. In Herzberg's review of literature it became obvious that those factors which caused satisfaction and those which caused dissatisfaction were different. He labeled the factors which dissatisfied workers as hygiene factors, relating those to the medical use of the word hygiene. Hygiene is important to man in the prevention of health hazards. There is a need for water purification, garbage disposal, and control of air pollution to prevent health problems, etc. These factors do not cure disease, however. Herzberg considered the following to be factors of hygiene in work situations: supervision, interpersonal relations, physical working conditions, salary, company policies and administrative practices, and benefits and job security. These factors, according to Herzberg, must be present to prevent dissatisfaction; however, their presence does not necessarily bring about satisfaction.

Satisfaction is brought about by factors that lead to self-actualization. The concept of self-actualization is that the supreme goal of man is to fulfill himself as a creative, unique individual according to his own

potential. The factors identified by Herzberg that bring about self-actualization are called motivators. They are achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility, and advancement.

Freeman (1980) and Rouse (1977) both conducted studies to test Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory on volunteers. The theory was supported in both of these studies.

### Process Theories

The process theories will be presented in the next section. They attempt to answer the question of how individual behavior is energized, directed, maintained, and stopped. The three process theories that will be discussed are expectancy theory, equity theory, and goal setting theory.

#### Expectancy Theory

A number of different versions of expectancy theory exist. All of them are similar, but Vroom's (1964) version was selected for this paper because of its popularity. His theory is based on three concepts: expectancy, valence, and instrumentality. Expectancy refers to the perceived probability that a certain level of effort will result in a particular outcome. An example would be that high performance will result in getting promoted. The value the worker puts on getting promoted is termed valence. There is the possibility that the

worker may fear a promotion because the promotion brings added responsibility. If this were true then the valence or value of high performance would be very low. If, on the other hand, the worker wanted the promotion and believed it would bring about a salary increase then it would have a high valence. Instrumentality is the term Vroom uses to describe the degree to which the employee believes that high performance will lead to a promotion. The individual considers these three concepts in his thought process. Valence creates the question of how important are various outcomes such as promotion or salary increase. Instrumentality causes the individual to ask if the first-level outcome, high performance, will lead to a promotion or salary increase. Expectancy raises the question of whether exerting effort actually achieves high performance.

### Equity Theory

The next process theory that will be considered is Adams' (1963) equity theory. Nearly all research related to equity refers to J. Stacey Adams' work. Adams (1963) believes that any time two people exchange something there is the possibility that one or both will feel the exchange is inequitable. Inputs are characteristics or qualities such as education, intelligence, experience, training, skill, seniority, age, sex, and most important, the effort

expended on the job. There are only inputs if they are perceived by their contributor as necessary for the job.

Outcomes are the other side of the exchange. They include pay, rewards intrinsic to the job, seniority benefits, fringe benefits, job status and status symbols, and a variety of formally and informally sanctioned prerequisites. Again outcomes are only as important as they are perceived to be. If a person does not care about status, then it is not an outcome.

Job inputs and outcomes are imperfectly correlated and this is the reason for the concern about job inequity. There are normal expectations of what is fair between inputs and outcomes. Bases for these normal expectations are usually co-workers or someone in a similar position with another company.

Adams states that inequity exists whenever a person perceives that his job inputs and/or outcomes stand psychologically in an obverse relation to what he perceives are the inputs/outcomes of someone else. The important idea of this definition is that perception is very important. A part of perception is a person's values or culture. Different cultures could have great influence on a person's perception of equity.

In a further look at the definition of inequity it is important to recognize that inequity exists not only when a person is underpaid, but also when he is overpaid. This indicates that workers are not out to get as much as



possible for their work, but that they want to receive the right amount. Some of the effects of inequity follow.

Whenever a person experiences inequity it creates tension in him. This tension is proportional to the magnitude of the inequity and will drive that person to reduce it. This produces the question--How may inequity be reduced? Adams presents a number of possibilities.

1. A person may increase his inputs if they are low relative to his outcomes and to his reference person.
2. A person may decrease his inputs if they are relatively high.
3. A person may increase his outcomes if they are relatively low; obtain a wage increase.
4. A person may decrease his outcomes; this is very unlikely but possible.
5. A person may "leave the field" when he can do nothing else to change his inequitable status.
6. A person may change his reference person and pick someone with nearly the same capability and pay.

Adams points out that these possibilities are not equally satisfactory.

#### Goal-Setting Theory

A third process theory is Locke's (1968) theory of goal setting. It was developed over a number of years, beginning in 1966. It is Locke's belief that an individual's goals influence his behavior. He goes further to state that challenging goals result in higher levels of performance than routine or simple goals. There

is a hypothetical level of difficulty which would cause an individual to reject the goal, and, therefore, it would have no effect.

Another important aspect of goals is their specificity. The clearer and more specific goals have a more positive influence on performance. Locke and others have conducted numerous experiments which support this theory.

### Leadership Theories

The five leadership theories that will be discussed here are Fiedler's contingency-leadership theory, Vroom and Yetton's model of decision making, House's path-goal theory, the life-cycle theory, and the Ohio State studies. These theories were selected because they represent the major leadership theories being considered today.

#### Contingency-Leadership Theory

The contingency leadership theory was developed by Fiedler (1967). The theory or model postulates that group performance is dependent on the interaction of the style of leadership and the favorableness of the situation.

Leadership style is measured by the LPC or least preferred co-worker scale. Individuals who described their least preferred co-worker in a rejecting and negative manner gave higher priority to task than to interpersonal relations, and they are considered task-motivated. Individuals whose judgement of another person

is relatively uninfluenced by his value as a co-worker tend to be relationship oriented.

Favorableness of the situation is determined by these three variables: leader-member relations, task structure, and position power. Fiedler believes that interpersonal relationships between leaders and followers are likely to be the most important variables in determining power and influence.

The leader-member relations factor may be described as the degree of confidence, trust, and respect the leader is said to have. The second factor, which is also second in importance, is task-structure. This factor includes goal clarity, goal-path multiplicity, decision verifiability, and decision-specificity. The third factor, position power, refers to the power which is part of a given leadership position. Position power, according to Fiedler (1974), is determined by asking such questions as the following: "Can the supervisor fire or hire an employee?" and "Can the supervisor give rewards or punishment as he sees fit?" Answering these kinds of questions tells whether a person has high or low position power.

A leader's power and influence are then determined by the situation of these three factors: Are leader-member relations good or bad? Is the task structured or unstructured? and Is the position power weak or strong? Groups

can be classified as to their situation for each of these factors. Fiedler's classification may be presented as follows: (Gibson, 1979:213)

Leader- Member Relations	Good				Poor			
	High		Low		High		Low	
Task Structure	High		Low		High		Low	
Position Power	Strong	Weak	Strong	Weak	Strong	Weak	Strong	Weak
Situations	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8

Very favorable <-----> Very unfavorable

Fiedler believes that relationship-oriented style is best when the situation is moderately favorable or moderately unfavorable. On the other hand, when the situation is highly favorable or highly unfavorable a task oriented approach is best for leadership effectiveness. Fiedler (1974) defines leadership effectiveness as how well the leader's group performs its assigned functions.

#### Model of Decision Making

Another situational theory of leadership is Vroom and Yetton's (1973) model of decision making. At one time most information relating to explaining leadership behavior had an autocratic orientation. The person in the leadership position made the decisions, issued orders, and checked on their performance. It has been suggested by behavioral scientists that subordinates should participate in the decision-making process. Research evidence

provides some support for this suggestion. The fact that some research supports and other research does not support the idea of participative decision making, led to the idea that the situation determines when it should be used.

A leadership decision-making model has been developed by Vroom and Yetton which describes the kinds of situations in which different degrees of participative decision making would be appropriate. Their model emphasizes two criteria of decision effectiveness: quality and acceptance. Quality is the objective aspects of a decision that influence performance of subordinates. Acceptance is described as the degree of commitment to the decision by subordinates. In deciding whether a problem requires subordinate commitment, two things need to be considered: Will execution of the decision require initiation and judgement by the subordinates? and Are there likely to be strong feelings about the decision? If a yes answer is received for either one or both of these, there is an acceptance requirement of the problem.

The Vroom and Yetton model describes five appropriate decision-making styles that involve all or none of a leader's subordinates. These styles are as follows:

A1. leader makes the decision, A2. leader receives information from subordinates, C1. leader discusses problems and possible solutions with subordinates (not as group), then leader makes the decision, C11. leader meets

with subordinates as a group to discuss problem and solutions, then the leader makes the decision, and G11. leader meets with group to discuss problem and leads group to consensus on a solution. These styles range from autocratic to group style of decision making.

In order to determine which style is appropriate, a set of questions has been developed. They are 1. Is there a quality requirement for the problem? 2. Does the leader have adequate information to make a high quality decision? 3. Is the problem structured? 4. Is subordinate acceptance important for implementation to be effective? 5. If the leader makes the decision, will subordinates accept it? 6. Are the organizational goals to be attained in solving the problem shared by the subordinates? and 7. Will preferred decisions likely cause conflict among subordinates?

### Path-Goal Theory

A third situational or contingency theory of leadership is the path-goal theory developed by Robert J. House (1971). The foundation for this theory is the expectancy-motivation theory which has already been discussed. When relating the expectancy theory to leadership the implication is that subordinates will be motivated by a leadership style to the degree that it influences expectancies (goal paths) and valences (goal attractiveness). An important part of the leader's job is

to make sure subordinates understand the kind of behavior that will likely result in goal accomplishment.

The two main path-goal propositions developed by House (1974) are as follows:

1. The behavior of a leader is acceptable and satisfying to the degree that the subordinates perceive such behavior as an immediate source of satisfaction or as important to future satisfaction.
2. The behavior of a leader is motivational to the extent that satisfaction of needs is made contingent to effective performance and it complements the subordinate environment by providing guidance, clear direction, and rewards necessary for effective performance.

### Life-Cycle Theory

Another leadership theory is the life-cycle theory (Hersey, 1977). This theory states that as the maturity of the followers increases, appropriate leadership behavior changes, requiring less task structure and less social support (relationships). The four types of leadership and the maturity level for which they should be used are as follows: high task and low relationships for low maturity, high task and high relationships or high relationships and low task for average maturity, and low task and low relationships for high maturity. Maturity in

this theory is defined in terms of achievement motivation, ability and willingness to accept responsibility, and education relevant to the task and experience. Also, it should be pointed out that the maturity factor is task specific. That is, because of knowledge and experience in an area, a person may be very mature when working in that area but very immature in a different subject area. The life-cycle theory teaches that leader behavior must change as followers mature to be effective. The sequence should be as presented earlier. The four types may also be referred to as telling, selling, participating, and delegating.

#### Situational Determination of Leader Behavior

The final idea concerning leadership that will be presented here is the Ohio State Studies (Behling, 1976). Shortly after World War Two a series of studies began at Ohio State University. The purpose of these studies was to test hypotheses concerning the situational determination of leader behavior. However, many of the studies were aimed at identifying the types of behaviors leaders display and learning the effects of style of leadership on work group performance and satisfaction.

In one of these studies a questionnaire was given to B-52 bomber crews at an air force base. An analysis of these questionnaires revealed four dimensions which



characterized the behavior of the commanders as seen by their subordinates:

1. Consideration caused the most variation in answers to the questionnaire. The degree to which a leader acts in a warm, friendly, supportive manner and exhibits concern for subordinates is consideration.
2. Initiating structure was the second largest factor. It is defined as the degree to which a leader defines his own role and the role of subordinates.
3. Production emphasis was much less important than either of the first two. It simply refers to emphasis on the task or mission.
4. The fourth dimension was sensitivity, and it was found to be the least important dimension.

Because production emphasis and sensitivity accounted for only a little of the variation in their perceptions of their leader's behavior these were eliminated from the questionnaire.

Further studies revealed that consideration and initiating structure are prime dimensions of leader behavior in a variety of situations ranging from military combat missions to assembly line work. Numerous studies were undertaken at Ohio State and other places to determine which combination of these two--high in both,

high in one and low in the other, or low in both--was the most effective. These studies did not identify a single style that was best in all situations. It was learned that high consideration-high initiating structure style led to greater satisfaction and performance more frequently than the others.

### Volunteerism

"A Look at the Eighties: Crucial Environment Factors Affecting Volunteerism" is a document about the future of volunteerism. Rydberg and Peterson (1980) edited this work and identified eleven environmental factors as important in the development of volunteerism. These factors, listed in order of importance, are as follows:

- A) Inflation
- B) Feelings, attitudes, values, changing expectations, motivations of volunteers
- C) Government, changing roles, responsibility, impact
- D) Energy shortages
- E) Empowerment, minority needs, equal opportunities, women's movement, reaching the young
- F) Mechanization, work, earning a living
- G) Demographics, lifestyle
- H) Stance of the helping establishment
- I) Corporate involvement
- ✓ J) Litigious society

K) The nature of American Society

(Weatherford and Weatherford, 1982, p. 61)

The discussion which follows is taken from a paper prepared for the National 4-H Needs Assessment Project by David Weatherford and Carol Weatherford. It includes the ideas of Manser, Schier, Jon Von Til, and Trecker, which were edited by Rydberg and Peterson and further synthesized by the two Weatherfords.

Inflation

Inflation continues to be a vital factor affecting volunteerism. Sixty-two percent of Americans named inflation as the most important problem facing the nation (Gallop, 1979). While inflation affects everyone, it definitely affects some more severely than others. Inflation affects both the time and money people have available to give as volunteers.

Manser suggests that inflation causes (1) more two income families, (2) more difficulty for volunteers to pay for their expenses, (3) agencies to stop or cut back paying expenses of volunteers, and (4) decreased ability to travel due to cost.

Scheier provides several ideas of the possible impact of inflation. One is a closer relationship between volunteering and paid employment resulting in greater budgeting for volunteer expenses. Agencies that refuse to pay expenses of volunteers may lose them, and volunteering

may become a province of the affluent. Volunteer programs that offer opportunities as preparation or training for employment will prosper.

A second possibility is the idea of volunteerism toward self-sufficiency. This is emphasis of self-help or helping people to help themselves. Volunteers may shift their efforts to address the problem of inflation as a social issue. This would direct volunteers toward consumer vigilance, public education, and energy conservation. Scheier also suggests that funding, both private and public, available for volunteer programs will shrink. This will reduce the qualified staffs needed for administration of volunteer programs.

Feelings, Attitudes, Values, Changing Expectations,  
Motivations of Volunteers

In a study covering the years 1957 through 1973, Gidron (1977) found that people volunteered for both altruistic and self-interest reasons. Manser considers the volunteer spirit to be a symbiotic relationship between altruism and self-interest. He believes this relationship is characterized by a balance between give and growth as perceived by the volunteer.

The volunteers will become more selective and will expect more from their volunteer commitments. They will not only want to know "What am I supposed to do?" but also "What kind of support can I expect from the staff?"

Scheier suggests that as a result of changing motivations and expectations the following changes be expected:

1. As competition for volunteers increases, organizations will have to do a better job of support to increase the volunteer impact.
2. There will be a shift away from service volunteering to other forms.
3. Volunteers will shift to those types of activities that allow them to feel more direct control of events and purposes.

Trecker also suggests these implications for changing motivations and expectations:

1. Volunteers will expect their efforts to be "cost justifiable" in that what one chooses to do must be "worth it."
2. Through workshops, conferences, and seminars with volunteers, administrators of volunteer services should seek to understand prevailing moods and attitudes.
3. By using collaboration and participatory approach in leadership, administrators can provide volunteers with a better understanding of the leadership process and help them to see that no one person is responsible for the total leadership of an organization.

4. Volunteer agencies should maintain strong mutual ties with the corporate world and corporations should be encouraged to promote volunteerism through release time and other methods.
5. With increased volunteer responsibility, a high standard of selection should be developed. The goal of expanded volunteer roles should remain that of enriching services and not replacing career employees.
6. Volunteer planning councils should be widely representative of the total community.
7. Volunteering may be seen as a "security harbor" for many during a time filled with stress for some.

#### Government, Changing Roles, Responsibility, Impact

Positive and negative influences by the government have been felt on volunteerism. Government programs can influence volunteerism either way. In addition to government's direct influence, public attitude toward government affects volunteerism. As citizens become impatient with the time necessary for establishing government programs as well as their lack of control over government programs, they become motivated to do something themselves. Activist groups of many kinds have been formed as a result of this view. In 1981, President

Reagan appointed a presidential task force on volunteerism. Citizens are getting more involved as illustrated by citizen committees in North Carolina and town meetings in Mississippi.

The government will influence volunteerism through its policies. Federal tax policies allowing the deduction of volunteer expenses are a positive influence on volunteering.

### Energy Shortages

Manser presents the following impacts on volunteerism created by the energy shortage. Gasoline shortages will reduce volunteer mobility while reductions in heating and electrical use will put limits on available office space and time. Organizations using volunteers must keep abreast of these situations and take steps to minimize their impact on programs.

### Empowerment, Minority Needs, Equal Opportunities, Women's Movement, Reaching the Young

The ideal of equal opportunity for all is basic to the founding of this nation. Empowerment is a process which comes about as people strive for freedom, justice, and equality. Many groups in our society, the elderly, racial minorities, handicapped, and others have rights but face societal barriers. These people need to be recruited in more volunteer programs. Through volunteer involvement, these groups of people will increase their

empowerment. This will happen only as volunteer managers increase their sensitivity to the dignity, needs, and wishes of these groups.

#### Mechanization, Work, Earning and Living

The work place does have an influence on volunteerism and at this time it is in a state of change. Our nation is shifting to a service producing from a goods producing economy. It is estimated that by the year 2000 only 2 percent of the workforce will be needed in the production of goods as automation and the use of robots increase. These changes will cause need for re-training and also reduction of jobs in some areas. The automation and use of robots will eliminate many entering level jobs and will call for a higher level of training for the entire work force. The large number of women in the work force will cause an increase in flex time and will also call for the humanization of work. The number of youth seeking employment during this decade will decline.

The changing work place will create a problem for many people. Jobs will be scarce and it will be a struggle to stay ahead of inflation. Job satisfaction will be more difficult for many to find in this changing world of work.

Manser suggests the following implications for volunteer administrators:



1. They need to understand the work situation in their community.
2. Volunteer opportunities should be different from those at work.
3. Volunteer experiences can provide opportunities for learning job related skills.
4. Volunteers will demand greater control of their activities and involvement.
5. A promotion system should be planned for volunteers.
6. Recognition programs for volunteers must be effective.

Scheier recommends that volunteerism and the changes of the work place become integrated.

#### Demographics, Lifestyles

The population of our country will change in the following ways during the eighties:

- 1) greater percentage of people over 60.
- 2) decline in the birthrate.
- 3) greater percentage increase of blacks.
- 4) shift of people to the South and West.
- 5) shift from cities to rural areas.

These changes indicate more retired persons available to do volunteer work, but less young adults. The increased number of blacks will provide more available volunteers

from this group but will also provide more opportunities to serve this group.

#### Stance of the Helping Establishment

Those agencies involved in helping groups of people better their situation are generally referred to as the helping establishment. It has been viewed as including only paid staff, not volunteers. Scheier identified tension between paid staff and volunteers which he believes is caused by staff indifference. Volunteers must be treated in a positive, supportive manner that is seldom provided by staff today (Scheier, 1978). The consequences of too little staff support for volunteers include low performance level and eventual dropout.

A study done by Buser et al. (1980) found that administrator characteristics, such as friendliness, helpfulness, and flexibility, were a major portion of the factors causing volunteers to continue in a juvenile corrections program.

The implication of this situation is the need for organizations to take a close look at their professional philosophies and training regarding volunteer involvement in community services and planning.

#### Corporate Involvement

At the time this article was written, in 1981, three hundred thirty-three companies had reported some type of volunteer program. As the workplace becomes more

humanistic, a greater number of corporations will become involved in their communities.

Some of the volunteer programs that companies have accepted are presented here in descending order of popularity: (1) giving materials and services, (2) lending personnel, (3) releasing time, (4) providing recognition events for volunteers, and (5) providing executives on boards. Programs such as these have improved worker morale, provided community goodwill for the company, and improved employee skills.

#### Litigious Society

This refers to the growing tendency of people to bring litigation against other individuals and organizations. Impacts of a litigious society on volunteering will generally be negative. People will hesitate to do some volunteer activity because the recipients may bring litigation against them. This threat may be lessened by including volunteers in group insurance coverage available to paid staff.

#### Nature of American Society

In the U.S. society there are three major components. These are government, the profit making component, and the voluntary component. For the society to grow and remain healthy, these three components must have balanced interaction.

Volunteerism is not isolated in its component; it is involved in carrying out the work of the other two. The volunteer movement is going toward new forms of advocacy, policy input, self reliance, neighborhood based, informal, freelance, or small autonomous groups. Volunteering is moving back to what it once was--a primary people power rather than an auxillary institution power (Weatherford and Weatherford, 1981, p. 82).

In order to understand what is involved in developing an effective volunteer program a plan developed by the Office of Volunteerism in Florida will be presented. Other plans (Flory, 1977; Boyce, 1971; and Havens, 1977) were reviewed. However, the one selected was more complete and specific. A Systems Approach (1980) indicates that managerial skill and leadership is one of the most essential ingredients necessary to a successful volunteer program. An effective volunteer program requires that managers devote time and attention to it just like any other program or service. About twenty-five percent of the volunteer programs in this country fail and many others do not achieve their potential. Researchers have discovered the following deficiencies which are common to most volunteer program failures: staff resistance, apathy, lack of training, and inadequate supervision of volunteers. The authors point out that many of the research findings fail to recognize that these problems are symptomatic of a greater shortcoming. By

following these problems up the organizational hierarchy the real problem will be discovered. That is "the failure of top management to take those actions necessary to insure program efficiency" (A Systems Approach, 1980:2). In analyzing this situation a different set of problems is discovered. These problems identified by the authors are "ignorance of volunteerism principles by administrators, lip service to the concept of volunteers, lack of commitment and planning, no clear policy or delegation of responsibility, vague objectives and goals, lack of monitoring or evaluation, no accountability procedures, and poor participatory management systems" (A Systems Approach, 1980:2). These represent an entire series of management actions and inactions that are expressed in the field operational problems cited by researchers as the "reasons" for failure of programs.

The authors also suggest that failure of volunteer programs can usually be directly tied to the failure of administrators to apply standard management principles to conducting a volunteer program. It is their opinion that strong administrative leadership will produce an effective volunteer program whereas token leadership will bring about token results. Commitment is very important to a successful volunteer program. Administrators must be prepared to invest a substantial amount of time, energy, and leadership to have an effective volunteer program. There must also be a volunteer philosophy or rationale.

The following have been generally agreed on by volunteer administrators:

1. America is a nation of volunteers founded on the ethic of people helping people. According to U.S. Department of Labor statistics, 22 million Americans give volunteer service in one form or another. Their numbers are growing and by 1980, the estimated value of these services could reach 30 billion dollars annually.

2. Volunteers represent the foundation upon which thousands of humanitarian organizations are built.

3. Throughout the country, volunteers have demonstrated their ability to greatly expand the quality of care available to social services recipients.

4. The misconception of volunteers as "do gooders" who will be here today and gone tomorrow is not based on fact.

5. A growing body of research evidence indicates that properly trained and supervised volunteers can effectively perform virtually any social service job or activity.

6. Public agencies, which have offered citizens meaningful volunteer opportunities, made them feel welcome and provided good training and supervision, have found them to be a dependable, cost effective, and efficient source of manpower for upgrading client services.

7. Government has never had in the past, nor will it have in the future, enough paid staff and professional resources to meet all client needs.

8. Current economic conditions, limited revenues, and expanding work load will require social agencies to find alternatives to increasing professional staff to meet client needs.

9. Public social agencies have a moral and legal responsibility to do everything necessary to meet the needs of clients. Since volunteers are a cost effective, proven and dependable way of meeting needs, government has an obligation to make full use of their potential.

10. Public awareness and sensitivity to the human needs of social service recipients is poor. Intelligent, creative use of volunteers can help improve public awareness and serve as a bridge between agency and community.

11. Voluntarism represents a return to the ethic which recognizes that communities have a responsibility for the problems which they help create.

12. Within virtually every community are people who have the time, talent, and energy to work in most all social service components and contribute greatly to the effectiveness of agency programs.

13. Volunteers do not replace staff; they augment and complement professional workers. They extend agency resources and work as part of a service team.

14. People volunteer out of a sincere desire to help others and will generally not be satisfied if relegated to menial or token activities.

15. Volunteers will dependably serve an agency only so long as the agency dependably serves their needs. Jobs must be meaningful and volunteers properly treated and recognized. (A Systems Approach, 1980:8-10)

The author also identified the following elements of volunteer program planning:

Development of clear-concise volunteer policy:

- A. Definitions and types of volunteer services
- B. Administrative responsibility
- C. Staff orientation to volunteers
- D. Volunteer job development
- E. Volunteer recruiting
- F. Primary screening and matching
- G. Secondary screening and matching
- H. Job training for volunteers
- I. Volunteer supervision
- J. Records, program monitoring and accountability
- K. Confidentiality and other rules for volunteers
- L. Guidelines and Standards for Staff Supervisory Volunteers (A Systems Approach, 1980:12-22)

From this information it becomes very obvious that developing a volunteer program will require a commitment of time and energy.

McGoldrick (1976), a retiring volunteer coordinator, offers some specific advice to her replacement. After

asking a volunteer to do something, always follow-up. Communicate with the volunteer as often as possible and encourage others to also. She emphasizes the importance of using the telephone, calling people on a regular basis, letting the volunteers know what is going on, and finding out what progress they are making. McGoldrick points out that as professionals we should give service to volunteers regardless of the difficulty or amount of time necessary. If volunteers need lists, professionals should supply them; if information is needed, it should be given. Volunteers should be given whatever help is necessary to enable them to do the job. The professional needs to control the program while letting volunteers take charge. The professional needs to give credit to the volunteer for success, but the responsibility for the success remains with the professional. Because this is true, then he must also be willing to accept blame for failures and exonerate the volunteer.

### Research

In the preceding sections, motivation, leadership, and volunteerism have been discussed. At this point, information gained from specific research articles related to the topic will be presented.

Gidron (1979) reports that studies have shown that volunteers do expect some return for their work, that the expectation varies with the volunteer's background, stage



of life and social factors, and that the receipt of the expected return will affect the volunteer's decision to stay on the job. Young people tend to volunteer to explore careers, adult women for social interaction, and adult men for prestige.

Gidron's study was conducted at two mental health institutions. Respondents were asked whether they expected each reward and whether they received it in their work. The study also included structural interviews with medical personnel and coordinators of volunteer programs at the two institutions. The volunteers at one hospital were allowed to work only in a subordinate capacity while at the other they were allowed to be involved with the professional treatment team. In addition to work assignments there was also an attitude difference in the two hospitals. In one hospital, a separated approach was used in organizing the volunteer program and in the other an integrated approach.

The program using the integrated approach, including volunteers in treatment programs, attracted and retained young people, adults, and older adults who were able to contribute on a professional level. The program using the separated structure tended to attract a population with more older people. These people received only the reward of affiliation whereas the other group received that plus learning and self-development through their association with the professional staff.

Another study was done by John Rutledge (1981). He surveyed 180 North Carolina 4-H volunteers to learn the level of satisfaction of certain job facets. In 1981, a follow-up study was done to determine if the respondents were continuing as 4-H volunteers. Findings of the initial study indicated that people serving as community club leaders were largely satisfied with their work. Respondents indicated that their greatest satisfaction came from the opportunity to be of service to young people and the opportunity to develop themselves as a result of their volunteer service.

The greatest dissatisfactions reported in the study were items related to supporting behavior by others, knowing in detail the job expectations, feedback on performance, and the provision for adequate training.

In the follow-up study, the results showed significant differences between continuing volunteers and dropouts in 13 areas. Eleven of these thirteen areas were related to support by the extension agent.

A similar study was conducted by Johnson (1976) to determine why 4-H volunteer leaders quit. Utilizing an extensive questionnaire, he contrasted the responses of a sample of 97 leaders who quit after one year with those of a sample of 41 who remained active leaders for six years. The data indicated that those who quit did not seem to establish as effective communications as those who

remained. Continuing volunteers knew their 4-H agents better and conferred with them more often. Less than half of the discontinued group reported they had received help in their duties from the advisor, whereas 78 percent of those continuing indicated they had. Those who continued also knew their club members better and were more successful in recruiting parental help. A further lack of networking was implied by the fact that 60 percent of discontinuers said they took the job only because no one else would.

The third study concerning 4-H volunteers shifts from job satisfaction to motivation.

Henderson (1981) discusses motivating the adult 4-H volunteer. In her study she pointed out the different needs of volunteers and therefore the different motivations necessary. Henderson addressed three major areas concerning why adults volunteer to work with 4-H. Are they motivated most by affiliation, power, or achievement needs? What are the relationships between the characteristics of volunteers and their motivators? The most important reason for adults volunteering was to be with their children. This was followed by other responses such as: liked helping people, liked associating with youth, and wanted to influence the growth and development of youth.

These reasons for volunteering are similar to what other studies have found. In this study of 200 volunteers, 84 percent were motivated most by affiliation reasons.

In the preceding articles the need of feedback for the 4-H leader was pointed out; specifically in the two articles concerning satisfaction, and it was implied in the article on motivation. The importance of feedback about a person's behavior has long been recognized as necessary for learning and motivation in performance oriented organizations (Ilgen et al., 1979). He points out that feedback was necessary to provide the proper environment for the recipient to meet higher order needs, Maslow's Theory. Three major aspects of feedback that were identified by Ilgen have implications for using it.

Feedback was often misunderstood or not accepted by the recipient. This was true because judgment of feedback was not independent of source. Therefore, the credibility of the source must be considered. It was also important to recognize that negative feedback was much more likely to be misunderstood than was positive feedback.

The second aspect was that in several instances an increase in feedback frequency not only failed to improve performance but actually may have been detrimental to it. It was brought out that this was unusual and in most situations feedback tends to be too infrequent.

The third issue pointed to the need to recognize individual differences in reactions to feedback and take this into account. Feedback should be modified to fit the individual.

An example of how feedback may affect performance is pointed out in the following report.

Payne and Hauty (1955) conducted an experiment with 144 basic airmen, whose ages ranged close to 20 years. The men were put into four groups and given a test involving scanning four aircraft instrument simulators and making adjustments with simulated controls as needed. The control group did not receive feedback and the other three groups each received successively more specific feedback. The variation associated with the feedback was highly significant and the performance was higher for each increase in specificity in feedback.

Feedback is one area or part of the support that is necessary to enable people to carry out their assigned tasks. Support systems are defined by Caplan (1976:19) as "continuing social aggregation (namely, continuing interactions with another individual, a network, a group, or an organization) that provide individuals with opportunities for feedback about themselves and for validation of their expectations about others, which may offset deficiencies in these communications within the large community context."

He further identifies three elements of support as mobilization of a person's psychological resources and mastery of emotional burdens with the help of significant others, the sharing of a person's tasks, and the provision of extra supplies of money, skills, tools, and cognitive guidance to help a person to handle the situation.

The importance of providing support to subordinates may be seen throughout this chapter. Beginning with Maslow's Theory, the needs in his hierarchy include belongingness, social and love, esteem from others, and self-actualization. Self-actualization, the highest need, can only be reached if support is given to enable people to reach their potential. In McClelland's theory the desire for feedback on performance is included. The hygiene factors of Herzberg's theory include interpersonal relations. In the section on leadership theories Fiedler discusses the importance of leader-member relations. Vroom discusses participative decision making and the idea that people want to be a part of the decisions that affect them. In the section on volunteerism the idea is expressed that volunteers expect to be treated like people. As the demand for volunteers becomes greater they are going to choose to help those organizations that give them the greatest satisfaction. Even though the word "support" is not used very often, much is said to provide evidence that the humanistic or concerned approach to leadership is very effective.

CHAPTER III  
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

A survey instrument was designed to test the following null hypotheses:

- H<sub>0</sub> 1. The effectiveness score of the 4-H leader is not associated with the degree of concern shown to the leader by the 4-H agent.
- H<sub>0</sub> 2. The effectiveness score of the 4-H leader is not associated with the number of contacts with the extension agent.
- H<sub>0</sub> 3. The tasks accomplished by 4-H leaders are not associated with the number of tasks that leaders were asked to do.
- H<sub>0</sub> 4. The effectiveness score of the 4-H leader is not associated with the leader having children in 4-H.
- H<sub>0</sub> 5. Tenure of 4-H agents is not associated with their showing concern for the 4-H leaders.
- H<sub>0</sub> 6. The effectiveness score of the 4-H leader is not associated with the method of selection of the leader.
- H<sub>0</sub> 7. The effectiveness score of the 4-H leader is not associated with the leader's self-perception of competency as a 4-H leader.

H<sub>0</sub> 8. The effectiveness score of the 4-H leader is not associated with his being a school teacher.

The procedure involved in the development of the instrument follows. A thorough review of the literature was conducted. The initial list of tasks used to determine the leader's effectiveness score comes from the 4-H Leaders Handbook for Growth (Hammatt, 1982). Additions were made by the author based on personal experience. At a 4-H leaders' conference a group of 12 leaders were asked to look over the list to see if any other tasks should be added. The list was later sent to 10 4-H agents, and they were asked to add any other tasks that they felt were important. After the list of tasks was finalized, it was then sent to six state 4-H staff members of other states whose primary responsibility is to develop 4-H volunteers. These staff members were asked to tell whether the tasks identified could be used to measure leader effectiveness; it was agreed that the tasks could be used. They were also asked to assign a value to each task based on a total of one hundred points. The values assigned to each task were added and the mean score then determined. The mean score for each task was then used to determine the effectiveness score of each leader based on whether he had or had not accomplished the task.

The review of literature concerning leadership theories indicated that an important trait of effective



leaders was their personal concern for employees. Dyer (1983:75) also identified ten actions that managers may take to show their concern. These actions are used to determine the extent that 4-H agents show concern for volunteer leaders and may be found in question 8 of the questionnaire in the Appendix. In order to have a numerical score for concern shown by 4-H agents, the following values have been assigned: none - one, little - two, some - three, and much - four. The value for each part of question eight was added to determine the overall concern score.

#### The Sample

The population for this study consisted of the organizational 4-H leaders in the state of Louisiana. An organizational leader is one who has the overall responsibility for leadership of a 4-H club.

The sample consisted of twenty percent of all organizational leaders in the state. The sample was selected by listing all 4-H clubs in the state alphabetically by parish (county). A number between one and five was then selected by placing the five numbers in a container and drawing one. The number five was drawn; therefore, the sample began with the fifth club and continued with every fifth club on the list. The sample consisted of the organizational leaders for 312 clubs, involving a like number of volunteer leaders.

### Method of Obtaining Data

Data were collected from questionnaires. The questionnaires were hand delivered in sealed envelopes by the 4-H agents during their February, 1985, 4-H meetings. Each envelope contained brief instructions, the questionnaire, and a self-addressed return envelope. Each leader was instructed to fill out the questionnaire without discussion with the 4-H agent, seal it in the return envelope, and either mail it in or give it back to the agent at the end of the 4-H meeting. The questionnaire was pretested in East Baton Rouge Parish with 15 organizational leaders. A copy of the questionnaire, the letter to the Extension agents, and the instructions to the leader are attached as Appendices. Two hundred and forty-one questionnaires, 77 percent, were returned.

### Method of Analyzing Data

Data gathered with the survey instrument were discrete and continuous. Discrete data include the following: if the agent showed concern (each item), whether or not leaders were asked to do tasks, whether or not leaders accomplished tasks, whether or not the leader had children in 4-H, what method was used for selection of leaders, what the leader's self-perception of competence was, and whether or not the leader was a school teacher.

Continuous data include the effectiveness score, number of contacts with the 4-H agent, tenure of 4-H agents,

and overall concern shown by the agent.

Chi-Square was used to compare discrete data with discrete data; correlation was used when comparing continuous data with continuous data; and analysis of variance was used when comparing discrete data with continuous data except in one case where regression analysis was used. Specifically each hypothesis was analyzed as follows:

To analyze  $H_0$  1 regression analysis was used to compare each area of concern with the effectiveness scores of leaders and correlation was used to compare overall concern with the leader effectiveness score. In analyzing  $H_0$  2 and 5 correlation was used, Chi-Square was used with  $H_0$  3 and analysis of variance was used for  $H_0$  4, 6, 7, and 8.

CHAPTER IV  
ANALYSIS OF DATA

The data will be presented by discussing each hypothesis in the order it is presented in Chapter III. The terms effectiveness score and concern score are used throughout this discussion; therefore, an explanation of these terms will be presented to begin this chapter. The effectiveness scores were determined as follows:

- (1) Six state 4-H staff members from other states were asked to serve as a panel of judges to assign relative values to each of fourteen tasks on the supposition that these were the basic tasks involved in the 4-H volunteer leader's job. The values were assigned based on the relative importance of each task and a total score of 100. These values were added and a mean determined for each of the tasks. The values and a list of the tasks follow.

<u>Mean</u> <u>Value</u>	<u>Task</u>
(a) 9	Organize club at the beginning of the school year. (Organize includes meeting with the group to elect officers and fill out enrollment cards.)
(b) 6.33	Attend scheduled 4-H meetings.
(c) 9.166	Provide information to parents and 4-H'ers so that 4-H'ers may select projects that fit their interests and home situations.

<u>Mean Value</u>	<u>Task</u>
(d) <u>8.00</u>	Recruit other volunteers (either adults or teens) to serve as activity leaders (activity leaders help with specific club activities).
(e) <u>5.833</u>	Provide necessary information to insure that activity leaders will do their jobs.
(f) <u>6.33</u>	See that the club enrollment summary is completed and turned in to the 4-H Office.
(g) <u>9.833</u>	Assist club in planning program for the year.
(h) <u>8.5</u>	Meet with club officers prior to each meeting to help them plan the agenda and program for the club meeting.
(i) <u>6.66</u>	Assist in planning club activities - such as school support projects, community service projects, club socials, etc.
(j) <u>4.5</u>	Coordinate transportation to parish contests and/or activities.
(k) <u>7.5</u>	Recruit other volunteers (either adults or teens) to serve as project leaders. (Project leaders agree to conduct series of small group lessons to help 4-H'ers to complete their projects.)
(l) <u>7.833</u>	Provide necessary information to insure that project leaders will do their jobs.
(m) <u>5.833</u>	Keep 4-H Agent informed of club activities.
(n) <u>4.66</u>	Inform school administrators about 4-H club activities.
99.978	Total

- (2) The values presented were used to determine an effectiveness score for each leader. If the leader checked "yes" indicating he/she usually did a particular task, he was given the score calculated for that task. If he/she checked "no," he/she was given a zero. The lowest score possible was zero and the highest possible was 99.978, and the scores did vary from these two extremes. A summary of scores is presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Distribution of Effectiveness Scores of 4-H Leaders on the Leadership Effectiveness Scale

Scores	Frequency	Percent
0 -15.33	6	2.4
21.323-28.319	10	4.2
30.826-39.489	11	4.5
40.156-49.989	20	8.3
50.486-59.982	33	13.7
60.479-69.479	35	14.6
70.312-79.978	46	19.0
80.145-89.645	30	12.5
90.145-99.978	50	20.8
Total	241	100.0

- (3) Reliability was assessed and a KR 20 (Kuder-Richardson) coefficient of .78 was calculated, indicating acceptable reliability of the items in the instrument.

An examination of this table shows that nearly half, 115 leaders, scored less than 70 in effectiveness. This indicates that boys and girls in these 4-H clubs are not receiving many of the benefits that 4-H has to offer. It also shows that 50 leaders scored above 90, an indication that in twenty percent of the 4-H clubs surveyed, boys and girls are receiving numerous opportunities for growth through the assistance of volunteer leaders.

#### Concern Shown by Extension Agents

A concern score was calculated for each leader. It was based on the leader's perception of the Extension agent's actions toward the leader. The specific actions were adapted from ways of showing concern identified by Dyer (1983:75), and these were used or adapted to use in determining a score for each leader. The ways of showing concern and a summary of the number of responses to this question follow:

To what extent does the 4-H agent:

(a) Talk to you to include -

(1) Asking about your situation.

None 5 Little 25 Some 81 Much 129

(2) Listening to what you have to say.

None 2 Little 7 Some 45 Much 187

(3) Sharing information and ideas with you.

None 3 Little 9 Some 53 Much 176

(b) Show trust in your ability as a 4-H Leader - allow you freedom to function as a leader.

None 3 Little 2 Some 31 Much 204

(c) Provide recognition (formal and/or informal) for the work you do as a 4-H leader.

None 11 Little 9 Some 58 Much 160

(d) Provide opportunities for your growth and development as a 4-H leader. (Training opportunities as well as opportunity for greater responsibility.)

None 8 Little 21 Some 71 Much 139

(e) Involve you in decisions that affect your job as a 4-H leader and your club.

None 15 Little 27 Some 67 Much 131

(f) Take time to coach you - that is to help you in a positive manner:

(1) To understand what you are supposed to do.

None 11 Little 29 Some 68 Much 132

(2) How to do it.

None 10 Little 30 Some 77 Much 121

(3) Tell you what you have done well.

None 12 Little 24 Some 59 Much 143

The score for each leader was determined by assigning values to the different responses as follows: none - one, little - two, some - three, and much - four. The concern score came from adding the assigned values based on the



responses. The theoretical range in scores was 10-40; however, the actual range was 13-40. Reliability of these items was assessed using Cronbach's Alpha coefficient and a reliability estimate of .92 was determined, a very acceptable level.

A summary of the concern scores is presented in Table 2.

The distribution of scores in this table shows that 83 percent of the Extension agents scored above 30, out of a possible total of 40 points. This indicates that 4-H leaders' perception of concern shown by Extension agents is relatively high. It may also indicate that the 4-H leaders were reluctant to give their Extension agents low scores in this area. This is especially true when it is recognized that 67 4-H leaders gave their agents perfect scores for showing concern. It could be argued that all 4-H leaders should be shown maximum concern by Extension agents, because the leaders are serving as volunteers. The servicing of volunteers should be a major concern of Extension agents. Although the proportion having high scores is good, in actuality it should be as high as possible.

The first hypothesis states that the effectiveness score of the 4-H leaders is not associated with concern shown to leaders by the 4-H agent. This hypothesis was tested in two ways. A correlation analysis was run,

Table 2. Distribution of Concern Scores of Extension Agents on the 4-H Leaders' Perception of Concern Shown to Them by Extension Agents

Score Range	Frequency	Percent
13-17	6	2.4
20-24	14	5.8
25-29	20	8.3
30-34	47	19.6
35-39	87	36.0
40	67	27.9
Total	241	100.0

comparing the total concern score with the leader effectiveness score. The correlation determined by this analysis was .49, as shown in Table 3. With an N of 241, the correlation coefficient is significant at the .01 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected, indicating that the correlation between concern and effectiveness score is not due to chance. There is a positive association, as a consequence, between the concern shown to leaders by agents and their effectiveness scores.

The data were also analyzed by calculating the standardized regression coefficients of each item of concern to determine the percentage of variance accounted for by each statement. The coefficients are presented in Table 4.

The high positive correlation coefficient between the concern and effectiveness scores of 4-H volunteer leaders tells Extension agents that they may expect an increase in task performance as they increase their actions showing concern. Probably more important than knowing that this correlation exists is knowing which action of concern exhibits the greatest influence on effectiveness scores. The  $R^2$  of .299 indicates that 29.9% of the variance of the effectiveness scores was accounted for by all ten of the areas of concern. The standardized regression coefficients of each area of concern were calculated to

Table 3. Correlation Analysis of Effectiveness Scores of 4-H Leaders and Their Perception of Concern Shown to Them by Extension Agents

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Concern score range	13-40
Effectiveness score range	0-99.9
Correlation	.492

---

r is significant at .01 level of probability with 239 d.f.  
when  $r \geq .181$ .

Table 4. A Comparison of Effectiveness Scores of 4-H Leaders and Their Perception of Concern Shown to Them by Extension Agents

Items of Concern	Mean Effectiveness Score by Degree of Assistance				Beta Values	P	Standardized Regression Coefficient	Percent of Influence
	None	Little	Some	Much				
Asking about your situation	39.4	51.8	66.2	73.3	2.23	.35	.076	6.2
Listening to what you have to say	23.7	58.6	61.6	70.6	-6.32	.07	-.153	12.3
Sharing information and ideas	20.8	42.5	59.6	72.9	4.55	.17	.126	10.2
Showing trust in you - allow freedom to function	11.4	46.3	50.8	71.8	8.57	.02	.179	14.3
Providing recognition	40.2	60.9	64.3	72.1	-1.08	.64	-.038	3.0
Providing opportunities for growth and development	38.5	48.8	62.8	75.4	5.85	.02	.203	16.3
Involving you in decisions	40.4	56.9	69.4	72.9	0.01	.99	.000	0.0
Coaching you - to help you understand what to do	37.2	53.8	65.4	75.6	6.66	.07	.257	20.6
Coaching you - to help you understand how to do it	42.5	54.6	65.2	75.7	-3.34	.37	-.126	10.1
Coaching you - tell you what you do well	42.2	56.1	64.0	74.2	2.24	.42	.088	7.0
<hr/>								
	R <sup>2</sup> = .299		F = 9.48		P = .0001		100.0	

determine the relative influence each one had on the total. It was determined that the item "Coaching you to help you understand what to do" accounted for 20.6 percent of the variance accounted for by all areas of concern. The probability level was .07, indicating that 93 percent of the time this particular area of concern accounted for 20.6 percent of the variance in effectiveness scores due to concern levels. In applying this information to the 4-H program of Louisiana, this indicates that it is very important to help 4-H leaders to understand just what it is they are supposed to do. This also gives support to the idea that written job descriptions agreed to by both leaders and agents would be helpful in increasing task performance among 4-H leaders.

The area of concern that was second in the amount of variance accounted for was "providing opportunities for growth and development." This item accounted for 16.3 percent of the variance accounted for by all areas of concern and the probability level was .02. This highlights a potential need for a definite training program as well as a need for a career ladder for 4-H leaders.

The next area of concern which accounted for 14.3 percent of the variance in all areas of concern, and at a probability level of .02, was "showing trust in you." This indicates that as Extension agents shown more trust in their 4-H leaders, they may expect greater task performance. One obvious way to show trust is to

encourage and support 4-H leaders to have more 4-H activities without the Extension agent in attendance.

The next area of concern which accounted for 12.3 percent of the variance in all areas of concern, and at a probability level of .07, was "listening to what you have to say." In applying this information to the 4-H program this indicates that task performance of leaders will increase if agents take time to listen. These four above-mentioned areas of concern accounted for 63.5 percent of the variance for the ten areas of concern. Recognizing that Extension agents doing 4-H work feel time pressures, this information suggests that agents may increase task performance levels of leaders by showing concern in those areas that had the greatest influence on leader effectiveness scores. These were: (1) help you understand what you are supposed to do, (2) provide opportunities for growth and development, (3) show trust in you, and (4) listen to what you have to say. The first three of these correspond to factors that bring about self-actualization, work itself, responsibility, and advancement as identified by Herzberg in Chapter II. As a consequence, Extension agents must not only be more cognizant of these factors, but in practice they need to exhibit such supportive and reinforcing behaviors toward leaders.

It should be pointed out that "involving you in decisions that affect your job" had the least influence--in

fact it had no influence at all--on the effectiveness scores. This indicates that it is not necessary to involve leaders in decisions that affect their job. This is important for Extension agents to know because it takes time to involve people in decisions. Vroom and Yetton's decision making model referred to in Chapter II points out that the importance of involving people in decisions depends on the situation, and in the situation presented, it is not important.

#### Contacts with the Extension Agent

Hypothesis number two states that the effectiveness score of 4-H leaders is not associated with the number of contacts with the Extension agent. The correlations for contact level and effectiveness scores given in Table 5 were as follows: overall contacts .278, face-to-face visits .189, telephone calls .334, circular letters .124, newsletters .154, and personal letters .126. At the .05 level, overall contacts, face to face visits, telephone calls, and newsletters were significantly related to effectiveness scores. At the .01 level, overall contacts, face-to-face visits, and telephone calls were significantly related.

The correlation of .334 for phone calls was nearly twice as large as for any of the other methods of contact. This indicates that, even though some of the other methods of contact were significant, the correlation between



Table 5. A Comparison of the Number of Contacts with Extension Agents with the Effectiveness Scores of 4-H Leaders

Kind of Contact	Range of N	Mean Number of Contacts	Correlation Coefficient	P
Telephone	0-40	4.2	.334	.01
Face-to-Face	0-50	4.7	.188	.01
Circular Letters	0-20	4.4	.124	NS
Newsletters	0-12	3.7	.153	.05
Personal Letters	0-12	1.3	.125	NS
Total		18.4	.278	.01

r is significant  $\geq$  .138 at the .05 level with 239 d.f.

r is significant  $\geq$  .181 at the .01 level with 239 d.f.

telephone contacts and effectiveness scores was much greater. This is important information for Extension agents who may not have time to make a personal visit. It should be mentioned at this point that because agents are expected to attend monthly 4-H meetings, the leaders have seen and met them at that time. Telephone contacts may not be as effective in situations where the agents and leaders do not know each other, but when they do, it apparently can be a useful means of maintaining contact. Assuming that 4-H leaders are receiving some feedback on performance through these contacts, these data support other research presented in Chapter II indicating that an increase of feedback increases task performance.

#### Tasks Accomplished - Tasks Asked

Hypothesis number three states that the tasks accomplished by 4-H leaders are not associated with the number of tasks that leaders were asked to do as part of their job assignments. There were fourteen tasks involved in testing this hypothesis. For thirteen of these tasks, chi-square values of 21.9 to 94.6 were calculated (see Table 6). These values were all significant at the .0001 level. The hypothesis is rejected, therefore.

For the task of organizing the 4-H club, 90.1 percent of those who were asked performed the task and only 33 percent of those not asked performed the task. For this task, 195 leaders were asked and 44 were not asked.

Table 6. A Comparison of Task Accomplishment by 4-H Leaders by Being Asked to Perform the Tasks by the Extension Agent

Task Description	Percentage by Task Accomplishment			Chi-Square at 1 d.f.	P
	Yes	No	Total		
Organize 4-H Club	N=195	N= 44	N=239		
Yes	90.1	33.3	81.6		
No	9.9	66.7	18.4		
	<u>100.0</u>	<u>100.0</u>	<u>100.0</u>	65.75	.0001
Attend Scheduled Meetings	N=192	N= 47	N=239		
Yes	81.1	63.6	80.3		
No	18.9	36.4	19.7		
	<u>100.0</u>	<u>100.0</u>	<u>100.0</u>	2.035	.1537
Provide Information to Parents	N=139	N=100	N=239		
Yes	75.6	20.0	58.2		
No	24.4	80.0	41.8		
	<u>100.0</u>	<u>100.0</u>	<u>100.0</u>	65.4	.0001
Recruit Activity Leaders	N= 94	N=145	N=239		
Yes	65.7	18.7	39.3		
No	34.3	81.3	60.7		
	<u>100.0</u>	<u>100.0</u>	<u>100.0</u>	54.6	.0001
Provide Information to Activity Leaders	N=108	N=131	N=239		
Yes	63.4	18.6	45.2		
No	36.6	81.4	54.8		
	<u>100.0</u>	<u>100.0</u>	<u>100.0</u>	46.7	.0001

Table 6. (continued)

Task Description	Percentage by Task Accomplishment			Chi-Square at 1 d.f.	P
	Yes	No	Total		
Complete the Enrollment Summary	N=160	N= 79	N=239		
Yes	84.3	16.4	67.0		
No	15.7	83.6	33.0		
	<u>100.0</u>	<u>100.0</u>	<u>100.0</u>	94.6	.0001
Assist the Club in Program Planning	N=145	N= 94	N=239		
Yes	70.6	25.0	60.7		
No	29.4	75.0	39.3		
	<u>100.0</u>	<u>100.0</u>	<u>100.0</u>	35.4	.0001
Meet with Officers Prior to Club Meetings	N=116	N=123	N=239		
Yes	64.0	20.9	48.5		
No	36.0	79.1	51.5		
	<u>100.0</u>	<u>100.0</u>	<u>100.0</u>	41.0	.0001
Assist in Planning Club Activities	N= 86	N=151	N=237		
Yes	55.9	9.9	36.3		
No	44.1	90.1	63.7		
	<u>100.0</u>	<u>100.0</u>	<u>100.0</u>	28.6	.0001

Table 6. (continued)

Task Description	Percentage by Task Accomplishment			Chi-Square at 1 d.f.	P
	Yes	No	Total		
Coordinate Transportation to 4-H Activities	N= 86	N=151	N=237		
Yes	55.9	9.9	36.3		
No	44.1	90.1	63.7		
	<u>100.0</u>	<u>100.0</u>	<u>100.0</u>	53.0	.0001
Recruit Project Leaders	N= 70	N=167	N=237		
Yes	56.8	15.4	29.5		
No	43.2	84.6	70.5		
	<u>100.0</u>	<u>100.0</u>	<u>100.0</u>	43.9	.0001
Provide Necessary Information to Project Leaders	N= 84	N=153	N=237		
Yes	53.7	20.2	35.4		
No	46.3	79.8	64.6		
	<u>100.0</u>	<u>100.0</u>	<u>100.0</u>	28.9	.0001
Keep the Extension Agent Informed of Club Activities	N=163	N= 74	N=237		
Yes	75.4	38.1	68.8		
No	24.6	61.9	31.2		
	<u>100.0</u>	<u>100.0</u>	<u>100.0</u>	21.9	.0001

Seventy leaders were asked to recruit project leaders and one hundred sixty-seven were not asked. Of those that were asked, 56.8 percent performed the task and of those not asked, only 15.4 percent performed the task. The message from these data are very clear; in order to increase task performance, leaders need to be asked to perform specific tasks instead of being told that they just have to help generally with the 4-H club. It is also important to see that for the two tasks discussed, the number of leaders asked ranged from 70 to 195 out of a total of 239. This indicates that Extension agents are selective in the tasks they ask leaders to accomplish, and this in itself may be a significant problem. It also suggests that agents may need training to help them understand the importance of project leaders to the 4-H program. Many 4-H members fail to complete a project because they do not receive any individual or small group help.

For the task of attending scheduled 4-H meetings, 81.1 percent of those asked performed the task and 63.6 percent of those not asked performed the task. A chi-square of 2.03 indicated a non-significant difference at the .05 level. This was the only task in which asking or not asking was statistically nonsignificant. One explanation for this is that leaders were told or asked to attend the meetings by the school principal.

The data presented here support the research data presented in Chapter II which indicates an increase in task performance with an increase in specificity of information. Locke's theory of goal setting discussed in Chapter II also points out the importance of specific goals which would be impossible without complete understanding of the task.

#### Leaders with Children in 4-H

Hypothesis four states that there will be no difference between the effectiveness scores of leaders who have children in 4-H and those that don't. The analysis of variance test was used to determine whether this hypothesis should be accepted or rejected. According to the data in Table 7, the mean effectiveness score of leaders with children in 4-H was 68.0, while the score for those without children in 4-H was 68.3. An F value of 2.16 was determined and this was not significant at the .05 level. Therefore, the hypothesis is accepted that there is no difference in the effectiveness scores of leaders with children in 4-H and those without children in the 4-H program.

The results of this comparison were surprising to the author because it has been said and is generally accepted by Extension agents that parents make the "best" 4-H leaders. The idea that being a parent is not related to leader effectiveness is important to the Extension agent,

Table 7. Comparison of Effectiveness Scores of 4-H Leaders Who Are Parents of Children in 4-H with Leaders Who Are Not Parents of Children in 4-H

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	N	Mean Effectiveness Score
1. Leaders with children in 4-H	78	68.0
2. Leaders without children in 4-H	149	68.3

---

$F = 2.16$  with 1 and 188 d.f.  $> .14$ .



because it is a factor involved in recruitment. It is also important because Extension agents may tend to expect less of leaders who don't have children in 4-H, because they "know" that parents make the best leaders.

#### Tenure of Extension Agents

Tenure of Extension agents was not associated with their showing concern for 4-H leaders was the fifth stated hypothesis. A correlation analysis was run to determine if this hypothesis would be accepted or rejected, and an r value of .117 was calculated. This value is not significant at the .05 level. Therefore, the hypothesis is accepted that there is not a significant difference between tenure of 4-H agents and their showing concern for 4-H leaders. This information is presented in Table 8, and the fact that there is no significant correlation is a very important finding. This indicates that there is no increase in the degree of concern shown by Extension agents as their tenure on the job increases. It would seem that with proper training and supervision, the amount of concern shown would increase with higher tenure levels. Since this is not happening, one may decide that training and supervision are not adequate. However, other possible causes are: (1) the lack of Extension agent role models who show concern for volunteer leaders, (2) the philosophy that 4-H is a "youth development" program--being interpreted to mean that Extension agents should

Table 8. Correlation of Concern Scores with Tenure of Extension Agents

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Concern score range	13-40
Tenure range	1-35 years
Correlation	.117

---

r is nonsignificant at .05 level of probability with 109 d.f. when  $r \geq .195$ .

work only with young people and not with adults, and (3) the lack of recognition by administrators of volunteer management as a major part of the job of the Extension agent doing youth work.

#### Method of Selection of Leaders

The next hypothesis states that the effectiveness scores of the 4-H leaders are not associated with the methods of selection of leaders. Table 9 shows that the mean effectiveness scores ranged from 65.7 for those recruited by the Extension agent to 72.3 for leaders who volunteered. An F value of 1.97 at 3 and 188 d.f. was not significant at the .05 level. The hypothesis, therefore, is accepted and it may be stated that there is not a significant relationship between effectiveness scores and method of selection. This information will be helpful to Extension agents because it disproves the commonly held belief that a 4-H leader who is appointed by the principal doesn't want to be the leader and will not be effective. Extension agents who accept this belief tend to let these appointed leaders know by their action or lack of action that they don't expect much from them, and the leaders respond by not doing much. If Extension agents will accept this information and begin providing support to these leaders, it is reasonable to expect their effectiveness scores to improve.

Table 9. Comparison of Effectiveness Scores of 4-H Leaders with the Method of Selection of Leaders

Method of Selection	N	Mean Effectiveness Score
1. Appointed by principal	127	66.0
2. Recruited by 4-H agent	17	65.7
3. Volunteered	65	72.3
4. Recruited by another leader	18	71.5

F value = 1.97 at 3 and 188 d.f. P = .12.

### Leaders' Self-Perception

The effectiveness score of the 4-H leader is not associated with the leader's self-perception of competency as a 4-H leader is the seventh hypothesis. Table 10 shows that mean effectiveness scores of leaders ranged from 16.5 for those who responded "none" to 79.8 for the leaders who responded "much" as to the degree of competency felt. An F value of 8.75 at 3 and 188 d.f. was significant at the .0001 level. This is highly significant; therefore, the hypothesis is rejected. It may be said that a leader's self perception of competency was associated with their effectiveness score. This is not an unusual finding; however, it does have implications for the 4-H program. The very large increases in the mean effectiveness scores in Table 10 indicate that Extension agents need to strive to improve the leaders' self-perception of competence. Specific recommendations concerning this will be presented in the next chapter.

### Teachers Versus Non-Teachers

The final hypothesis of this study states that the effectiveness score of the 4-H leader is not associated with his/her being a school teacher. The mean effectiveness score for teachers was 68.2 and for non-teachers it was 68.9 as shown in Table 11. An F value of .09 with 1 and 188 degrees of freedom is not significant at the .05 level. This means that there was not a significant

Table 10. A Comparison of the Effectiveness Scores of 4-H Leaders with the Degree of Competency Felt by the Leader

Degree of Competency Felt	N	Mean Effectiveness Score
None	4	16.5
Little	35	49.9
Some	91	66.0
Much	97	79.8

$F = 8.75$  at 3 and 188 d.f.  $P = .0001$ .

Table 11. Comparison of Effectiveness Scores with  
Teacher Versus Non-Teacher Leaders

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	N	Mean Effectiveness Score
<hr/>		
1. Teachers	204	68.2
2. Non-Teachers	23	68.9

---

$F = .09$  with 1 and 188 d.f.  $P = .76$ .

difference and the hypothesis is accepted. The fact that there was no significant difference between the effectiveness scores of teacher and non-teacher 4-H leaders is an interesting finding. This is important because Extension agents tend to believe that teachers don't have the time that non-teachers do to give to a 4-H club. This finding may be interpreted to mean that all 4-H leaders have time commitments in addition to 4-H; however, being or not being a school teacher is not related to the effectiveness score.



## CHAPTER V

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The major problem addressed by this study was the lack of task performance by 4-H leaders.

The major objective of the study was to discover if there was a relationship between task performance of the 4-H leader and concern shown by the Extension agent. More specifically, an attempt was made to determine if one area of concern is more important than another. Other objectives were to determine if there was a relationship between effectiveness of 4-H leaders and (1) their method of being selected, (2) whether or not they had children in 4-H, (3) whether or not they were school teachers, (4) their self-perception of competency as a 4-H leader, and (5) if there was a relationship between concern shown and tenure of Extension agents.

The research consisted of a survey instrument sent to 312 of the 1,560 organizational leaders throughout the state of Louisiana. Two hundred forty-one leaders (77 percent) returned the surveys. Eight hypotheses were tested, and the following statistical tests were used to analyze the data. Correlation was used to compare continuous data with continuous data; Chi-square was used to compare discrete data with discrete data; and analysis of

variance was used to compare continuous data with discrete data, except in one case where regression analysis was used.

### Summary of Findings

1. There was a positive correlation between concern shown by the Extension agent as perceived by the leader and the effectiveness score of the leader. An  $r$  value of .49 was calculated, and this was significant at the .01 level.
2. The four actions of Extension agents having the greater influence on the leader effectiveness scores were (a) coaching to help them understand what to do, (b) providing opportunities for growth and development, (c) showing trust in them, and (d) listening to what they have to say.
3. There was a positive correlation between the number of contacts and the effectiveness scores of leaders. The  $r$  value for telephone contacts was .334, for face-to-face visits - .188, and for newsletters - .153. These correlation coefficients were all significant at the .05 level.
4. Task accomplishment by leaders was positively associated with being asked by Extension agents to perform the task. Chi-square values from 21.9 to 94.6 were calculated for thirteen tasks. These values were all significant at the .0001 level.

5. There was not a significant difference in the effectiveness scores of leaders who had children in 4-H and those who did not.
6. Tenure of Extension agents was not associated with the leaders' perception of the agents showing concern for them.
7. The effectiveness score of 4-H leaders was not associated with the method of their selection. The methods of selection compared were as follows: appointed by principal, recruited by Extension agent, volunteered, and recruited by another leader.
8. The effectiveness scores of the 4-H leaders were associated with the leaders' self-perception of competency as a 4-H leader. An F value of 8.75 was determined, and it was significant at the .0001 level.
9. The effectiveness scores of 4-H leaders were not associated with whether or not the leader was a school teacher.

### Conclusions

The conclusions are presented as they relate to the objectives of this study. They are as follows:

1. There is a wide variation in effectiveness scores of 4-H leaders--115 scored less than 70 and 126 scored above 70. This indicates that many boys and girls enrolled in 4-H are not receiving the full benefits

4-H has to offer because their volunteer leaders are not as competent as they should be. The fact that 50 leaders scored above 90 in effectiveness shows that some 4-H members are receiving many opportunities for growth because they have highly competent volunteer leaders.

2. Four-H organizational leaders are volunteers and should be shown maximum concern by Extension agents. The concern scores given by 4-H leaders were generally high; 64 percent scored 35 or higher out of 40. However, it appears that some leaders were reluctant to give their agents low scores, because 27.9 percent gave a perfect concern score of 40 for their agents.
3. Four-H volunteer leaders expect some return for their time given. They expect to be given an understanding of their roles, an opportunity for personal growth through training and responsibility, and they expect to be listened to as important human beings. This study indicated that if leaders receive this kind of treatment, they will respond by performing more of the tasks necessary to enable young people to get the maximum benefit from the 4-H program.
4. There was no difference in the effectiveness of leaders who are appointed by their school principal and those who are recruited by agents or other leaders. This has been a subject of much discussion

among 4-H professionals. This study can allay some of the concerns about appointed leaders.

5. There was no difference in the effectiveness of leaders who have children in 4-H and those who do not.
6. A general or overall conclusion of this study was that 4-H organizational leaders want to feel that they are doing something worthwhile--that they are making a difference in our world today. If Extension agents provide them with the opportunity to make a difference and with the support to enable them to help young people, they will respond favorably. A general change of attitude among some extension agents would make this possible.

#### Recommendations

Based upon the findings of this study, the following recommendations are offered to increase task performance by 4-H leaders.

1. Administrative staff should become familiar with the findings of this study and should recognize the possible impact upon the 4-H program of Louisiana.
2. Extension agents should attend meetings that provide opportunities for discussion of the findings of this study.
3. Extension agents should be given training to effectuate job agreements with 4-H leaders.

4. Leaders should be provided adequate training opportunities to enable them to perform effectively, and in particular to improve themselves as volunteers.
5. A career ladder should be developed to allow volunteers an opportunity to progress in responsibility.
6. Administrative policies should be written that will increase the leaders' opportunities to function more independently in performing agreed upon tasks.
7. The Extension agent and 4-H leaders should schedule and hold at least one conference each month.
8. Extension agents responsible for youth work should shift their emphasis from working directly with 4-H members to working directly with 4-H leaders so that the 4-H program may continue to grow.
9. A minimum of one parish (county) in each administrative area should be selected to pilot a leader-led 4-H program in which the Extension agents work only with leaders.

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## APPENDIX



Knapp Hall  
Baton Rouge, LA 70803-1900  
504 388-4141

January 8, 1985

To Selected 4-H Agents:

I have completed the sample selection for my survey and each parish has at least one club in the sample. I am sending sealed envelopes with the names of the selected clubs. In each envelope is a questionnaire, a letter from me, and a self-addressed stamped envelope.

I am also enclosing a copy of the questionnaire and letter that your leaders will be receiving so you will know what they are receiving. Please be assured that the information received will not be used to evaluate anyone.

Take the envelopes to the February 4-H meetings and ask the leader to fill it out during the meeting, seal it in the enclosed envelope, and allow you to mail it for them. As you can see from my letter to the leaders, they may mail it if they prefer. Please try not to influence your leaders other than to encourage them to be accurate and honest with their replies. It is my goal to receive all of these back by late February. If leaders ask you to mail their forms please do that as soon as you receive them rather than getting all of them together.

Thank you very much for helping me in this way. I am optimistic that this study will provide information that will be helpful to the 4-H program of Louisiana. I look forward to sharing the results with you when it is completed.

Sincerely,

Donald R. Hammatt  
Extension Assistant (4-H)

P.S. If you have any questions please call or talk to me at the agent training meeting the last week of January.

DRH/km



**LOUISIANA  
COOPERATIVE  
EXTENSION SERVICE**

LOUISIANA STATE UNIVERSITY AGRICULTURAL CENTER

February 1, 1985

Knapp Hall  
Baton Rouge, LA 70803-1900  
504 388-4141

TO: Selected 4-H Leaders

The questionnaire you are being asked to fill out is short--it takes about 10 minutes to complete. Your responses will be strictly confidential and will not be used to evaluate your 4-H agent or you. Please read the questions completely and give your honest response to each one. Do not discuss the questionnaire with your 4-H agent until after it has been mailed.

The purpose of the questionnaire is to learn more about the association of task completion by 4-H leaders with support given by 4-H agents. Information gathered will serve as the basis for my dissertation and hopefully will provide information that will be useful in improving the 4-H program of Louisiana.

If at all possible please complete the questionnaire during your 4-H meeting, seal it in the enclosed envelope, and give it to your 4-H agent to be mailed. If you would prefer to mail it yourself this is fine--but please mail it the same day or the day after you receive it.

As stated earlier the purpose of this survey is to learn more about the total 4-H program in Louisiana and will not be used to evaluate any individual.

Thank you for completing the questionnaire.

Sincerely,

Donald R. Hammatt  
State 4-H Staff

DRH/km

Enclosure

### Leader Questionnaire

1. How long have you been a 4-H leader?  
\_\_\_\_\_ number of years.
2. How were you chosen to become the 4-H organizational leader?
  - a) Appointed by the principal\_\_\_\_\_
  - b) Recruited by the 4-H agent\_\_\_\_\_
  - c) I volunteered\_\_\_\_\_
  - d) Recruited by another 4-H leader\_\_\_\_\_
  - e) Any other method\_\_\_\_\_
3. Please give your work status. (for pay)
  - a) Full time\_\_\_\_\_
  - b) Part time\_\_\_\_\_
  - c) \_\_\_\_\_
4. Are you a school teacher? Yes\_\_\_\_\_ No\_\_\_\_\_
5. Do you have children in 4-H? Yes\_\_\_\_\_ No\_\_\_\_\_
6. To what degree do you feel competent as an organizational leader?  
\_\_\_\_\_None - I do not know what I am supposed to do.  
\_\_\_\_\_Little - I feel very limited in my competencies as a 4-H leader.  
\_\_\_\_\_Some - I feel competent with many of the tasks expected of an organizational leader.  
\_\_\_\_\_Much - I feel competent with most of the tasks that organizational leaders are responsible for.
7. Please answer the next group of questions by telling whether you usually do or do not carry out the tasks.
  - (a) Organize club at the beginning of the school year. Yes\_\_\_\_\_ No\_\_\_\_\_
  - (b) Attend scheduled 4-H meetings. Yes\_\_\_\_\_ No\_\_\_\_\_
  - (c) Provide information to parents and 4-H'ers so that 4-H'ers may select projects that fit their interests and home situations. Yes\_\_\_\_\_ No\_\_\_\_\_

- (d) Recruit other volunteers (either adult or teens) to serve as activity leaders (activity leader helps with a specific club activity).  
Yes\_\_\_\_\_ No\_\_\_\_\_
- (e) Provide necessary information to insure that activity leaders will do their job.  
Yes\_\_\_\_\_ No\_\_\_\_\_
- (f) See that the club enrollment summary is completed and turned in to the 4-H Office.  
Yes\_\_\_\_\_ No\_\_\_\_\_
- (g) Assist club in planning program for the year.  
Yes\_\_\_\_\_ No\_\_\_\_\_
- (h) Meet with club officers prior to each meeting to help them plan the agenda and program for the club meeting. Yes\_\_\_\_\_ No\_\_\_\_\_
- (i) Assist in planning club activities - such as school support projects, community service projects, club socials, etc.  
Yes\_\_\_\_\_ No\_\_\_\_\_
- (j) Coordinate transportation in parish contests and/or activities.  
Yes\_\_\_\_\_ No\_\_\_\_\_
- (k) Recruit other volunteers (either adult or teens) to serve as project leaders. (Project leader agrees to conduct a series of small group lessons to help 4-H'ers to complete their projects.) Yes\_\_\_\_\_ No\_\_\_\_\_
- (l) Provide necessary information to insure project leaders will do their job. Yes\_\_\_\_\_ No\_\_\_\_\_
- (m) Keep 4-H Agent informed of club activities.  
Yes\_\_\_\_\_ No\_\_\_\_\_
- (n) Inform school administrators about 4-H club activities. Yes\_\_\_\_\_ No\_\_\_\_\_

In answering question 8 please use the following definitions for the possible responses:

None - indicates the action is not done.  
Little - indicates the action is done occasionally.  
Some - indicates the action is done sometimes.  
Much - indicates the action is done on a regular and frequent basis.



## 8. To what extent does the 4-H agent:

## (a) Talk to you to include -

(1) Asking about your situation.

None\_\_\_\_\_Little\_\_\_\_\_Some\_\_\_\_\_Much\_\_\_\_\_

(2) Listening to what you have to say.

None\_\_\_\_\_Little\_\_\_\_\_Some\_\_\_\_\_Much\_\_\_\_\_

(3) Sharing information and ideas with you.

None\_\_\_\_\_Little\_\_\_\_\_Some\_\_\_\_\_Much\_\_\_\_\_

(b) Show trust in your ability as a 4-H leader -  
allow you freedom to function as a leader.

None\_\_\_\_\_Little\_\_\_\_\_Some\_\_\_\_\_Much\_\_\_\_\_

(c) Provide recognition (formal and/or informal) for  
the work you do as a 4-H leader.

None\_\_\_\_\_Little\_\_\_\_\_Some\_\_\_\_\_Much\_\_\_\_\_

(d) Provide opportunities for your growth and devel-  
opment as a 4-H leader. (Training opportunities  
as well as opportunity for greater responsi-  
bility.)

None\_\_\_\_\_Little\_\_\_\_\_Some\_\_\_\_\_Much\_\_\_\_\_

(e) Involve you in decisions that affect your job as  
a 4-H leader and your club.

None\_\_\_\_\_Little\_\_\_\_\_Some\_\_\_\_\_Much\_\_\_\_\_

(f) Take time to coach you - that is to help you in a  
positive manner:

(1) To understand what you are supposed to do.

None\_\_\_\_\_Little\_\_\_\_\_Some\_\_\_\_\_Much\_\_\_\_\_

(2) How to do it.

None\_\_\_\_\_Little\_\_\_\_\_Some\_\_\_\_\_Much\_\_\_\_\_

(3) Tell you what you have done well.

None\_\_\_\_\_Little\_\_\_\_\_Some\_\_\_\_\_Much\_\_\_\_\_

9. Place a check before the following tasks that you were specifically asked to do by the 4-H Agent.
- (a) \_\_\_\_\_ Organize club at the beginning of the school year. (Organize includes meeting with the group to elect officers and fill out enrollment cards.)
  - (b) \_\_\_\_\_ Attend scheduled 4-H meetings.
  - (c) \_\_\_\_\_ Provide information to parents and 4-H'ers so that 4-H'ers may select projects that fit their interests and home situations.
  - (d) \_\_\_\_\_ Recruit other volunteers (either adult or teens) to serve as activity leaders (activity leader helps with a specific club activity).
  - (e) \_\_\_\_\_ Provide necessary information to insure that activity leaders will do their job.
  - (f) \_\_\_\_\_ See that the club enrollment summary is completed and turned in to the 4-H Office.
  - (g) \_\_\_\_\_ Assist club in planning program for the year.
  - (h) \_\_\_\_\_ Meet with club officers prior to each meeting to help them plan the agenda and program for the club meeting.
  - (i) \_\_\_\_\_ Assist in planning club activities - such as school support projects, community service projects, club socials, etc.
  - (j) \_\_\_\_\_ Coordinate transportation to parish contests and/or activities.
  - (k) \_\_\_\_\_ Recruit other volunteers (either adult or teens) to serve as project leaders. (Project leader agrees to conduct a series of small group lessons to help 4-H'ers to complete their projects.)
  - (l) \_\_\_\_\_ Provide necessary information to insure project leaders will do their job.
  - (m) \_\_\_\_\_ Keep 4-H Agent informed of club activities.
  - (n) \_\_\_\_\_ Inform school administrators about 4-H club activities.
10. Other than at regular 4-H meetings about how many contacts did you have with the 4-H Agent since September 1, 1984 in the following ways:

Face-to-face visits	_____
	Number of times
Telephone calls	_____
	Number of times
Circular letters	_____
Newsletters	_____
Personal letters	_____

11. Do you happen to remember how long the 4-H Agent you work with most has been working with the 4-H program?  
\_\_\_\_\_ Yes \_\_\_\_\_ No  
If yes, please indicate about how long \_\_\_\_\_ (number of years)

## VITA

The author, the son of Edward and Ida Hammatt, was born November 25, 1942 in Baton Rouge, Louisiana. He received his elementary education in Baton Rouge and graduated from Baton Rouge High School in 1960.

In the summer of 1960, he entered Louisiana State University where he received a Bachelor of Science degree in Animal Science in May of 1964.

On April 12, 1963, he was married to Carol Lindsey of Shreveport, Louisiana. They have three children--Leslie Ann, 20, Donald Robinson, Jr., 16, and John Brent Hammatt, 10 years of age.

In August of 1964, he entered the Army as a Second Lieutenant and was sent to El Paso, Texas where he was stationed for eight months. He was sent to Germany in March of 1965 where he spent 16 months. He was discharged as a First Lieutenant in July of 1966.

In August, 1966, he was employed by the Louisiana Cooperative Extension Service as Assistant County Agent in Calcasieu Parish. He was promoted to Associate County Agent in 1972 and completed the Master of Science degree in Extension Education in August, 1974 at Louisiana State University.

In July, 1977, he was promoted to County Agent and in December of that year accepted the position of Extension Assistant on the state 4-H staff.

After moving to Baton Rouge, graduate studies began again in 1978. After several years of study, he applied and was accepted as a candidate for the degree of Doctor of Education.

# DOCTORAL EXAMINATION AND DISSERTATION REPORT

Candidate: Donald R. Hammatt

Major Field: Extension Education

Title of Dissertation: Four-H Organizational Leaders - The Association Between Task Performance and Support Received

Approved:

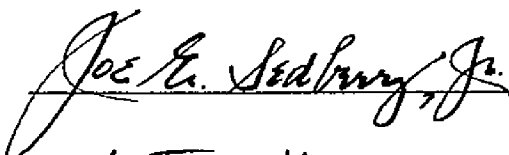


Major Professor and Chairman

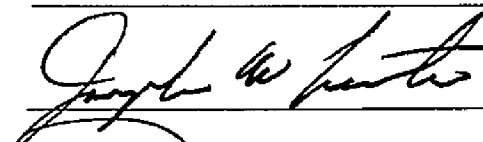


Dean of the Graduate School

## EXAMINING COMMITTEE:



Joe E. Sedberry, Jr.



Lathin Venna



Joseph W. Hunter



Rene E. Hennes



Barbara M. Foster

Date of Examination:

July 8, 1985